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ABSTRACT

Contained in this document are the results of nine studies in which various aspects of two-year college faculty were investigated. Data used in the studies were obtained from a 1975 nationwide study of 1,998 two-year college faculty, of whom 1,493 were humanities instructors and 505 were non-humanities faculty members. The areas investigated include: (1) characteristics of the well-functioning faculty member; (2) characteristics of outstanding instructors; (3) identification of interdisciplinary instructors; (4) part-time humanities instructors; (5) faculty attitudes toward affirmative action; (6) a comparison of fine arts instructors and social scientists; (7) dominant faculty values; (8) faculty preferences for self-actualization versus salary; and (9) job satisfaction and working conditions. The investigators were: Victor Cruz-Cardona, Andrew Hill, Don Karvelis, Rose-Lise Obetz, Sue H. Schlesinger, Eleanor Hammer, Josephine H. Fay, Len O'Hara, and Jack Friedlander. (JDS)

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THE HUMANITIES IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

FACULTY CHARACTERISTICS

Fall, 1976

Center for the Study of Community Colleges

and

ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges
University of California
Los Angeles 90024

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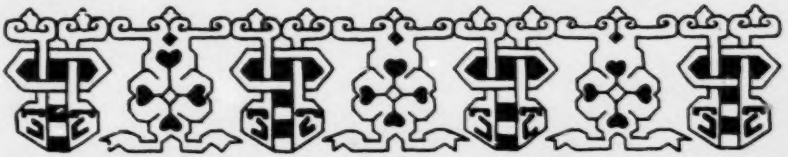


INTRODUCTION

The Center for the Study of Community Colleges, under a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities, undertook a multiphased project to study humanities education in two-year colleges. Beginning in 1974, the project's first task was an intensive literature review which provided an abundance of information in many areas. It also revealed conflicting and inconsistent reports that seemed to stem from several general problems: incomplete data bases, the evolving role of two-year colleges, the paucity of analysts addressing two-year college education, and inadequate definitions of the phenomena under surveillance.

The project was begun with the assumption that the humanities would be enhanced if two-year colleges did more to promote them among their students. It was also assumed that in order to understand and, where appropriate, modify curriculum in the humanities, the perceptions of those making decisions about instruction must be understood. This group includes trustees, administrators, and faculty members both in the humanities and in other fields. Because teachers are clearly the ones most directly involved with instruction, they were chosen as the prime group to study.

The Faculty Study primarily involved the collection and interpretation of a set of data on instructors in two-year colleges nationwide. The faculty survey form, which was designed, pretested, and revised by Center staff members, contained both quick-score and free-response items and totalled eleven pages. The items were arrayed in three categories--demographic characteristics, experiences in the profession, and values--and

eight constructs: preference for further preparation, curriculum and instruction, concern with the humanities, concern for students, university as reference group, satisfaction, research orientation, and Functional Potential.

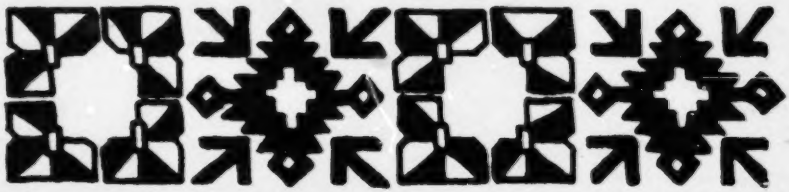
A representative sample of faculty members was achieved by using a two-stage sampling process. The first stage involved the selection of a number of public and private colleges that were proportionately distributed among the various geographic regions. Secondary variables for college selection included size, emphasis, age, and type of organization. The president of each college agreeing to participate in the project appointed an on-campus facilitator to assist in collecting the survey forms. The sample comprised a selected number of those who were teaching humanities classes in Spring 1975 as well as some nonhumanities faculty members and chairpersons. For the purposes of this project, a humanities faculty member was considered to be any instructor teaching one or more courses in aesthetics, art history and appreciation, comparative religion, cultural anthropology, foreign language, government, history, jurisprudence, linguistics, literary criticism, literature, music history and appreciation, philosophy, and theatre history and appreciation. The high response rate--84%--enabled the results of this study to be generalizable to the entire population of two-year college instructors nationwide. The final number of respondents totalled 1998, of whom 1493 were humanities teachers and 505 were nonhumanities faculty members.

The survey responses were coded at the Center and cleaned, keypunched, and printed by the Field Research Corporation of San Francisco. The data were arranged so that cross-tabulations could be made on the basis of disciplinary affiliation within the humanities, humanities versus nonhumanities teaching fields, faculties in public and in private colleges, instructors with and without doctoral degrees, faculties in colleges categorized by geographic region, age, size, emphasis, and type of organization, and numerous other variables. Analyses of the survey responses began in Fall 1975 and continued through June 1976.

During the spring of 1976, a seminar in the Graduate School of Educa-

tion at the University of California, Los Angeles, was convened. Arthur M. Cohen, principal investigator for the Faculty Study, and Florence B. Brawer, research associate, met with the students who conducted further analyses of the data. A group of studies, some using the total sample of 1998 instructors, others employing assorted subsamples, investigated various aspects of two-year college faculty members by cross-tabulating selected variables. The students selected the data to run by hypothesizing findings based on their knowledge of the results of other studies; they did not generate analyses post hoc. The following reports, edited by Sue Schlesinger, represent the results of these inquiries.

Arthur M. Cohen, President
Center for the Study of Community Colleges
Fall, 1976



THE WELL-FUNCTIONING FACULTY MEMBER

Victor Cruz-Cardona

The "super" faculty member--who is he/she? How can two-year colleges train their instructors to be well-functioning faculty members? The quality of education in community colleges relies primarily on the quality of the teachers, on their commitment to and involvement in the institution. Thus, the level of the faculty member's involvement in the teaching profession may be linked to his or her agreement with and commitment to the philosophy and goals of the institution; it may also suggest a way to establish rapport among all strata of the faculty throughout the college.

Proponents of faculty development programs tend to be somewhat vague about the basic assumptions underlying their plans and proposals. Although studies of these programs seem to be systematic--using well-known components and sequences--little or nothing is said about the rationale on which the programs are operationally based, and few of these programs use specific data to develop and support their selected strategies. There exists, for instance, no clear set of characteristics of "outstanding" faculty members that is empirically grounded and that could be utilized to support the design and variety of approaches suggested in past reports of faculty development programs.

In spite of the vagueness of previous research, the available reports do shed some light on the particular abilities and personality characteristics that differentiate the faculty member who functions well in two-year colleges. Early studies (Woodburne, 1952; McGrath, 1962) cite scholarship (meaning research to improve teaching ability), imaginative-

ness, insightfulness, originality, and integrity as the most critical qualities. And more recently Garrison (1967) offered ten indices of an "effective" two-year college instructor. This list includes: the nature and extent of a faculty member's effectiveness and activity in committee or faculty work; the way he handles his responsibilities as a student advisor; his willingness to be innovative and experimental in teaching and to use teaching aids; his involvement in the community; and his participation in professional organizations and in other activities related to his professional growth.

Many of the attempts to describe the characteristics most likely to be exhibited by the well-functioning professional or the superior faculty member reflect the proposition (Cohen and Brawer, 1972) that a person and his profession cannot be disassociated. An individual's personal values, attitudes, and orientations are unmistakably intertwined with his behavior and views as a professional.

Other descriptions of faculties in both community colleges and universities focus on ye' different dimensions of their professional and personal development. Hodgkinson (1974), for example, outlines the developmental stages of adulthood, describing the particular problems of each stage and interpreting the emotional and mental state of faculty members in terms of job pressures.

In seeking to arrive at a specific index of superior functioning, this study developed a new construct, labeled "Faculty Involvement in the Teaching Profession," which is comprised of two constructs initially employed in the Faculty Study--Curriculum and Instruction and Concern for Students. If it is understood as representing a composite of a faculty member's personal qualities and attitudes, his academic abilities, and his concern for students and for the teaching profession, this construct may very well be used to identify the well-functioning faculty member. Since this study assumes that a faculty member would exhibit high commitment to and involvement in the teaching profession to the degree that he or she is active in curriculum and instruction activities and shows concern for his/her students, the following was predicted:

(1) Those faculty members who score high on the construct Faculty in the Teaching Profession would tend to be older than their colleagues. As Hodgkinson (1974) argues, older teachers tend to be more concerned and committed to the institution and possibly more secure about their academic abilities and teaching skills;

(2) More nondoctorate faculty members than doctorate-holders would be found among those who score high on the Faculty Involvement in the Teaching Profession Construct. The fact that the traditional function of the two-year college has been to teach rather than to conduct research suggests that nondoctorate faculty members would tend to be more highly committed to the instructional task than their peers with doctorates. And although it could be argued that doctorate-holders in two-year colleges could be as committed to teaching as their nondoctorate counterparts, current data from the Faculty Study show that more doctorates than nondoctorates are likely to hold the university as a reference group and to show less concern for students.

(3) Proportionately more full-time faculty members than part-timers would be found among those who score high on the new faculty involvement construct. Findings from the Faculty Study reveal that part-timers tend to be less concerned with curriculum and instruction than full-timers, though they are just as concerned about students as full-timers. And Counelis (1974) maintains that full-time instructors have stronger ties to the institution than part-timers, suggesting also that full-timers tend to be more committed to and concerned with teaching.

(4) Faculty members who have taught at the secondary level would score higher on the faculty involvement construct than would those instructors who have come from four-year college or universities. More than 53% of the humanities instructors in the Faculty Study have moved up from teaching in high schools. For this group of faculty, the two-year college, though it is viewed as a "dead end" in their professional advancement, is nevertheless an ideal environment in which they may find opportunities to be creative in their teaching and to be sensitive and receptive to student concerns. Teachers coming from four-year colleges or universities,

either as faculty members or as graduate students, would tend to be more concerned about academic activities different from teaching, such as participation in curriculum committees and professional guilds, which seem to be more meaningful and relevant to their professional training or experience.

To see whether these expectations were valid I used a subsample of the humanities instructors in the Faculty Study who scored high and those who scored low on both the Curriculum and Instruction and Concern for Students Constructs. Thirty-six people scored high on both constructs, and sixty-seven scored low on both, making a total of 103, or about 7% of the original sample of the Faculty Study. Cross-tabulations of the aggregate construct, Involvement in the Teaching Profession, were made in regard to age, academic degree, teaching appointment, employment status, and previous teaching experience.

The results of the study show that all our expectations were correct. Substantially more people in the high-involvement group (41.7%) than in the low-involvement group (22.4%), as compared to the total (19.7%), fall within the age span of 46-53. The distribution for other age groups tends to be consistent but significantly lower than for the 46-53 group. This finding somewhat supports Hodgkinson's description of the faculty member's developmental stages in adulthood and particularly substantiates his argument that older faculty tend to be more concerned for students and more committed to the instructional task than younger faculty.

Furthermore, significantly more high-scorers than low-scorers on the Involvement in the Teaching Profession Construct do not have a doctoral degree. Of the total sample, 86.1% fall in this category, but 91.7% of those in the high group and only 71.6% in the low group lack doctorates. It should also be pointed out that considerably more people scoring low (28.4%) on this construct than those scoring high (8.3%) as compared to the total (13.9%) are found among those who do have a doctorate.

Again as was expected, more people scoring high in faculty involvement than those scoring low tend to be full-time employees: 88.9% of those in the high group and 73.1% of those in the low, as compared to the

total (75.6%), are full-timers. These findings also seem to support Counelis' claim (1974) that full-time faculty members not only have more ties to the institution, but tend to be more committed to and concerned with teaching. Finally, as predicted, substantially more people in the high group (72.2%) than in the low group (46.3%), as compared to the total (53.2%), were employed in secondary schools before joining the staffs of two-year colleges. Highly significant too, proportionately more people in the low group (56.7%) than in the high group (27.8%) as compared to the total (46.8%) are found to have come from a four-year college or university where they had been either formerly employed or enrolled as students at the graduate level.

In sum, this study provides us with the following information in helping to characterize the well-functioning humanities faculty member. Those who are highly involved in the teaching profession:

--tend to be older (forty-six to fifty-three);
--do not have a doctorate;
--are more likely to be employed full-time; and
--are extremely likely to have been employed in secondary schools.

Additional analyses of the data show that members of this group also tend to have been with their current institution from five to ten years, tend to have received an award for outstanding teaching, and are fairly satisfied with their position.

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OUTSTANDING INSTRUCTORS

Andrew Hill

How can we define the outstanding community college instructor? Teacher effectiveness has been a central issue in American education since the beginning of the twentieth century, when J.L. Meriam (1905) conducted his pioneering research at Columbia University Teachers College. Yet after seventy years of intensive study on the subject, "findings about the competence of teachers are inconclusive and piecemeal; and little is presently known for certain about teacher excellence" (Biddle and Ellena, 1964, p. v). Furthermore, it is ironic that the one level of our educational system that has received almost no attention concerning teacher effectiveness is the community college. Unlike four-year colleges and universities, the two-year college exists to be a teaching institution. A community college's prestige is not a function of Nobel-prize-winning professors, high admissions standards, or huge endowment funds; rather, its reputation is based on the quality of the teaching that takes place and the resultant proficiency of the alumni.

The diversity of strengths one must possess to be a successful community college instructor would seem to necessitate highly selective and scientific hiring practices. However, as late as the early 1960s, jobs were in such abundance that two-year colleges were in no position to be overly selective when filling a faculty opening. But in the 1970s community college jobs have become highly sought after, with applicants for a single position often numbering in the hundreds. Unfortunately,

administrators have few tools to help them identify the effective instructor.

Although the results of past research on teacher effectiveness have been inconsistent at best, the great need to advance knowledge in this field makes continued investigation a necessity. Community colleges are only as good as the teaching and learning that take place within their walls. Open-door admissions policies preclude much influence over the capabilities of the learners, but surely faculty selection can and must evolve from the subjective "buddy" system prevalent today to a more systematic and objective process. Until we learn more about what constitutes the person who becomes an outstanding teacher, community colleges are destined to hire many ineffective instructors. Of course, every business has its failures, but with tenure being almost automatic in many schools, education is one of the few "businesses" that has to live with it mistakes for decades.

Educational research on teacher effectiveness has produced volumes of studies and reports, yet "few if any 'facts' seem to have been established concerning teacher effectiveness, no approved method of measuring competence has been accepted, and no methods of promoting teacher adequacy have been widely adopted" (Biddle and Ellena, 1964, p. 2). Perhaps the answers have been so elusive because the subject itself is so ambiguous and complex. A major problem is evaluation. Barr and Others (1961) note that teacher educators, administrators, teachers, and students all seem to have their own methods of assessment. The variety of teacher raters in terms of background, biases, and interests makes evaluation highly subjective. Equally subjective are their preferences in educational outcomes. Because teachers are called on to perform such a wide variety of tasks (and there is little consensus on what constitutes "proper" outcomes), generalizations on the background, traits, and personality of the outstanding teacher are not very useful and perhaps implausible. Sorenson and Gross (1967) summarize the divergent views on both the means and ends of education into three schools of thought. When the means are didactic, the teacher acts as the disseminator of information and

facts; in the discovery mode, ideas and problem solving are stressed; and interpersonal means produce a warm and personal atmosphere. The three ends that they point out are: a knowledge of subject matter; the welfare and personal growth of the student; and the transmission of societal norms and values. Obviously, the evaluator's attitudes toward these means and goals greatly influence any subjective evaluation scheme.

Despite these barriers, I attempted to identify the characteristics of excellent teachers by examining a group of faculty who had already been identified as outstanding in the 1975 Faculty Study. If certain aspects of their personality, background, or skills differentiate them from the rest of the two-year college faculty, that knowledge could be helpful not only in hiring new teachers, but perhaps in devising developmental programs for present faculty members. Identification of these traits might also be useful in helping prospective teachers to decide whether they are suited for teaching at this particular level.

On the basis of previous reports of teacher effectiveness, the following questions were raised for our study. Will the group of outstanding instructors, as compared to the rest of the faculty: (1) be more likely to show more concern for students; (2) differ in their research orientation; (3) be more highly satisfied with their jobs; (4) be more active in professional organizations; and (5) be more involved in activities related to curriculum and instruction? Of the 1998 instructors in the Faculty Study, 430 (21.5%) indicated that at some point in their teaching careers they had "received a formal award for outstanding teaching." This group was designated as the "outstanding faculty," and then a number of questions from the survey were selected to see whether their responses differed from those of the other faculty members.

The results of our investigation show the following: Slightly more of the nonrecipients than of the outstanding faculty members rank high on the items contained in the Concern for Students Construct; yet an even larger contingent of the nonaward faculty falls into the low category. The outstanding faculty members are concentrated in the medium category (Table 1). We can conclude, then, that the outstanding teachers

do not tend to show more concern for their students than the rest of the faculty does.

TABLE 1

CONCERN FOR STUDENTS AMONG OUTSTANDING TEACHERS

Concern For Students Construct	Total	Outstanding Teacher Yes	No
High	11.2%	10.7%	11.5%
Medium	73.9%	79.8%	72.7%
Low	14.9%	9.5%	15.7%

In answer to our second question, I found that the outstanding group tends to be substantially more research oriented than the nonrecipients. A larger percentage of outstanding faculty (24.4%) fall in the high group of the Research Orientation Construct as compared to 13.9% for nonaward teachers (16.0% total), and a smaller percentage (11.2%) fall into the low group as compared to 19.1% for nonrecipients (17.4% total).

It was also found that outstanding faculty members tend to be more highly satisfied with their jobs: 46.3% feel that having the same job in five years would be very attractive, as compared to 38.1% of the rest of the teachers who feel this way. A slightly larger percentage of the nonrecipients foresee the same job as either somewhat attractive or unattractive.

The outstanding faculty members are more likely to belong to more professional organizations, have attended more regional or national meetings, and have presented more papers at organization meetings than their colleagues (Table 2).

TABLE 2

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES OF OUTSTANDING TEACHERS

	Total	Outstanding Teacher Yes	No
Member of professional organization			
None	22.0%	13.7%	24.4%
One	26.6%	24.9%	26.9%
Two	24.0%	25.3%	23.6%
Three or more	27.7%	36.1%	25.1%

TABLE 2 (Cont.)

	Total	Outstanding Teacher Yes	No
Attended regional/national meeting			
None	52.4%	47.9%	53.4%
One	24.9%	25.6%	24.8%
Two	14.1%	14.7%	13.9%
Three or more	8.7%	11.9%	7.8%
Presented a paper			
None	89.8%	85.6%	91.0%
One or more	10.2%	14.4%	9.0%

Finally, this study indicates that outstanding teachers are substantially more involved in curriculum and instruction than are the rest of the faculty. A high rating on the Curriculum and Instruction Construct was attained by 33% of this group while only 10.5% of the remaining faculty fall into this category (Table 3).

TABLE 3

INVOLVEMENT IN CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION BY OUTSTANDING TEACHERS

Curriculum and Instruction Construct	Total	Outstanding Teacher Yes	No
High	15.2%	33.0%	10.5%
Medium	68.9%	62.6%	71.4%
Low	15.8%	4.4%	18.1%

Further analysis of the data reveals that, as compared to the rest of the respondents, outstanding faculty members are more likely to:

--be working toward a doctoral degree;

--be males;

--read two or more scholarly journals within their discipline;

--read a professional education journal;

--strongly agree with the concept of merit promotions;

--strongly disagree with patterning their course after their college experience;

--give a higher rating to the terminal value "Equality" on

Rokeach's Terminal Values Scale;

--be a department chairperson;

--have come from a family that had more than 100 books in the home;

--not consider the university as a reference group;

--rate medium or high on the Concern with the Humanities Construct;

--feel excellent about living up to their greatest potential;

--have had an article published in a journal in their field;

--have written or co-authored a book;

--have applied to an outside agency for a research grant;

--have prepared replicable or multi-media instructional programs for class;

--have received a stipend or grant from their own college, from a private foundation, or from a government agency.

The overall picture one gets, then, of the outstanding teachers is that they are happy, active, involved individuals, just as one might expect. They read more, do more research, belong to more organizations, and enjoy life in general more than their colleagues. The importance of this study is that it reveals that the outstanding faculty, at least in the community college, are clearly distinguishable from the rest of the faculty. If nothing else, this study provides a point of reference for present instructors in two-year colleges who wish to model their behavior on that of their successful colleagues, so as to grow both professionally and personally.

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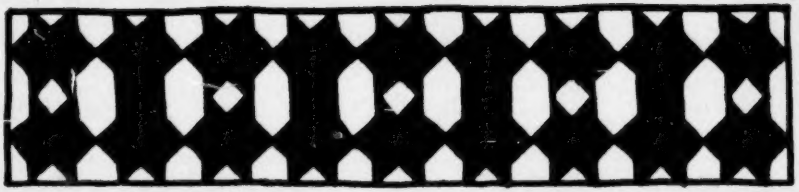

WHO TEACHES INTERDISCIPLINARY COURSES?

Don Karvelis

Do interdisciplinary programs reawaken student interest in the humanities? Those who maintain they do point to examples such as the Exploratory College at Rio Hondo College, GENTRAIN at Monterey Peninsula College, and the Coast/Chicago/Miami-Dade project. Undoubtedly, the success of these and other similar programs depends, to a great extent, on the faculty members who teach them.

According to O'Banion (1972), an integration of the humanities in interdisciplinary courses is inevitable in the community college because general education--a primary need of community college students--can best be provided in this way. He feels that the interdisciplinary approach will dominate future two-year college classrooms; that it will pervade the entire organizational and administrative structure of the institution, emphasizing student learning rather than subject teaching. If O'Banion is correct, administrators would do well to determine what type of faculty member is best suited to teach interdisciplinary courses. The purpose of this study is an attempt to do just that--to discover whether instructors who teach interdisciplinary humanities courses, on the two-year college level, do, in fact, share particular backgrounds, personal characteristics, or attitudes.

Holland (1966) theorizes that vocational interests reflect personality, which, in turn, results from one's total developmental history. Personal characteristics, claims Holland, can be defined in terms of

personality type and then linked to potential success in specific vocations or even to roles within an occupation. He believes that by using his typology, he can predict the effectiveness of pairing certain individuals with specific jobs. According to Holland's schema, the successful development of interdisciplinary courses would rely on particular, identifiable characteristics of faculty members.

Educators have, to some degree, tried to describe the persons who could best teach interdisciplinary courses. Philip Nash, for example, in developing the GENTRAIN interdisciplinary humanities program at Monterey Peninsula College, found that the choice of faculty members had to be based absolutely on their ability to work together. Otherwise, claimed Nash, the program would be multidisciplinary, rather than interdisciplinary. And Robert Nelson, current coordinator of GENTRAIN, tells us that instructors were chosen for this program because of their respect for disciplines other than their own and for their ability to see interrelationships among the program materials.

Cohen (1975) maintains that interdisciplinary humanities courses help synthesize various fields of study, which so often remain departmentally discrete. Students in other fields can usually fit one humanities course into their schedule, whereas a course in each subject would be impossible. Yet these courses frequently pose tremendous problems for the teachers, most of whom have not been trained as generalists. Apprehensive about exposure to areas outside their fields of expertise, they fear the course will be too superficial or will be dominated by some other field or instructor. According to Brawer (1975), the success of an interdisciplinary program depends on the attitude of the faculty.

By drawing selected data from the Faculty Study, I have tried to develop a model that describes the ideal faculty member in an interdisciplinary humanities program. The model could, perhaps, serve as a guide for administrators in hiring teachers for interdisciplinary programs or in beginning faculty development programs. Previous research on interdisciplinary programs suggested various predictions. It

was expected that community college faculty members who teach interdisciplinary courses would tend to:

--be highly involved in curriculum and instruction;
--be very concerned about their students;
--not see the university as a reference group;
--not be research oriented;
--show much concern for the humanities; and
--have a high degree of job satisfaction.

From the 1493 humanities instructors in the Faculty Study, those who favored more integration of the humanities and who had taught courses jointly with faculty members outside their own department were chosen as a distinct group for this study. Admittance to this group was based on responses to the following questions asked in the Faculty Study: "What changes would you like to see in humanities instruction at your college?" and "Have you taught courses jointly with faculty outside your department?" Those who indicated, in the first question, that they would like to see more interdisciplinary courses and those who answered "yes" to the second question, comprised the 73 instructors who made up this group. The results and conclusions of this study are based on a comparison of these instructors with the total sample of humanities teachers.

As expected, results showed that the interdisciplinary group are more highly involved in curriculum development and instruction, scoring higher (31.5%) than the total sample (14.8%) on the Curriculum and Instruction Construct. A substantially higher percentage of this group--just under half--had prepared an instructional program, compared to the total (41.5%) and a considerably higher percentage (67.1%) strongly agree that all faculty members should engage in more interdisciplinary courses (total, 34.7%). In general, these are people who have a strong commitment to good teaching. From a study of the data collected in this Construct, members of the group may have received awards for outstanding teaching. They may attend conferences related to teaching more often than other teachers, and use a syllabus, which they periodically revise. They also

may use written, measurable objectives in the classroom, sometimes run an item analysis on tests they give their students, and usually submit some written evidence of student learning, other than grade marks, to their dean or department head. They prefer to spend most of their time in planning and classroom instruction. If they could go through teacher training over again, they would concentrate on student-teaching practice and courses on teaching methods.

The interdisciplinary group also scores high (16.4%) on the Concern for Students Construct when compared to the total sample (9.9%). Those who score high have excellent relations with students; they rate student advice on teaching as useful. They also tend to spend time interacting with students outside the classroom and may be willing to base faculty promotions in part on formal student evaluations.

Again as expected, the interdisciplinary teachers see the university as a reference group less than does the whole sample. Scoring low on the University as Reference Group Construct, a proportionately larger percentage of the group finds a possible teaching position at a four-year college or university unattractive (24.9%) as compared to the total (18.8%), and a proportionately higher percentage (28.8%) do not pattern their teaching after their own university courses, as compared to only 20.2% of the total humanities sample. In general, this group does not consider university professors as useful sources of advice on teaching, nor do they desire close contacts with university professors who teach in the same field.

Perhaps most surprising is the discovery that a good percentage of the interdisciplinary group tends to be very research oriented, scoring considerably higher (28.8%) on this Construct than the total group (14.9%). This finding probably indicates that the interdisciplinary instructors have obtained and value recognition as scholars in their own discipline as well as in the teaching profession. Also somewhat surprising is the following: the interdisciplinary group scores no higher on the Concern for the Humanities Construct than does the total sample;

they are no higher in job satisfaction, and they are not younger than the others.

This study also provides the following additional information: a significantly higher percentage of the interdisciplinary group, as compared to the total, score high on the Involvement in the Profession Construct; a substantially higher percentage than the total are not working on an advanced degree, feel they have excellent job security, and consider their colleagues as useful for advice on teaching; and a considerably higher percentage had been students in a community college and are currently chairpersons of their departments. Moreover, a significantly lower percentage than the total group, score high on the Preference for Further Preparation Construct and define their relations with administrations as fair or poor.

Our findings indicate that in seeking faculty members for an interdisciplinary humanities program, an administrator should look for individuals possessing the following characteristics or qualifications:

--a strong interest and skill in curricular and instructional development;

--a concern for students' needs and a willingness to spend time interacting informally with them outside as well as inside the classroom;

--no interest in four-year college or university positions or in patterning teaching after their own university courses;

--a scholarly, research orientation, presumably within the teaching context of the community college;

--a tendency to get highly involved in the teaching profession;

--little interest in working on an advanced degree;

--regard for colleagues as excellent sources of information on teaching; and

--the ability to establish good relations with administrators.

Furthermore, this study indicates that potential interdisciplinary humanities faculty members will not differ significantly from other faculty in specific feelings of concern for the humanities or experiences with

the humanities; job satisfaction as a reflection of basic personality characteristics; or in age. These guidelines, of course, are not absolutes; neither do they result from the interpretation of a particular educational philosophy. Yet, as guidelines, they may be helpful to administrators in their selection of instructors for interdisciplinary courses in the community college.

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THE PART-TIME HUMANITIES INSTRUCTOR

Rose-Lise Obetz

Is it true that part-time faculty members are being exploited? Is there an identifiable difference between the highly satisfied part-timer and the dissatisfied one? The dramatic rise in the number of part-time instructors during the past few years--they now exceed full-time faculty members on many community college campuses across the nation--causes us to raise these kinds of questions. The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges reported that by 1974 there were more part-time than full-time instructors in at least sixteen states (Lombardi, 1975). If one includes evening classes and community outreach programs, part-time instructors comprise between 50 and 70% of the community college faculty. More surprising, however, is the rapidly increasing number of part-timers used to teach day classes--a practice unheard of before the early 1960s. Ross (1975) estimates part-time faculty members in California to be about 21%. This development is causing increasing concern in academic circles because of charges that the part-time instructor is a cheap labor source who is being exploited in order to subsidize retrenched community college programs.

The major reasons for utilizing part-time teachers have been identified in past studies as: (1) the decline in the growth rate of enrollments; (2) straitened financial conditions on many campuses; and (3) the growth of off-campus, outreach, weekend, and evening programs (Lombardi, 1975). With the decrease in the number of traditional full-time day

students, the community college has turned its attention to recruiting the nontraditional and part-time student. The increased use of part-time faculty members parallels this growth in part-time student enrollment.

Before one attempts to counter or support the charge of exploitation, it is important to look carefully at the issue of hiring part-timers. The community college administrator, confronted with serious budgetary limitations during the late 1960s, realized the savings possible in employing part-time instead of full-time instructors because of lower pay scales for part-time teaching. Part-timers also provided "new sources of instructors with special skills for regular or experimental programs that had a high probability of low enrollment or uncertainty of success" (Lombardi, 1975, p. 2). In addition, Lombardi points out that the teacher shortage of the 1950s set a precedent for recruiting instructors who were willing to undertake part-time assignments. Lastly, the part-timer provides the administrator with an efficient way of dealing with sudden shifts in enrollments--the freedom and flexibility to hire and fire as the situation or program demands.

From the full-time instructors' point of view, the part-timer is a threatening addition to the faculty. Not only do part-timers teach for less money--an action that might undermine the full-time instructors' demands for increased salary--but they are also "more amenable to administrative direction, less able to resist demands for greater productivity in terms of class size" (Lombardi, 1975, pp. 4-5), and a ready source of replacement in times of teacher strikes.

How do the part-time faculty members view themselves and their status? Previous research has been limited primarily to discussions of part-time salaries, the use of part-time teachers in college programs, and statistics on the numbers of part-timers being employed. There is a dearth of information on who these instructors are, how they feel about their employment status, and how they view their working environment and subsequent rewards. If it is true that 40 to 80% prefer their part-time status because they are employed in full-time jobs outside the

college, have no interest in campus governance and derive their satisfaction from being associated with a collegiate institution and sharing their special skills and talents with others through teaching (Lombardi, 1975), then it is possible that the current debates about part-timers represent little more than a tempest in a teapot. But is this in fact the case? Those part-timers who are not otherwise employed have a greater financial interest, and many view part-time teaching as a way to gain experience and to work into a full-time position.

The purpose of this study is to more closely examine the characteristics of the part-time instructor and to find out how a highly satisfied part-timer differs from his or her dissatisfied colleague. Such issues as (1) an equitable ratio of full-time to part-time faculty members in each institution, (2) the inclusion or exclusion of part-timers as members of the collective bargaining unit, (3) increased professionalism and tenure rights to part-timers, and (4) the increased salaries, benefits, and responsibilities of the part-time faculty can be examined using pertinent data from the 1975 Faculty Study.

On the basis of past research, I postulated that the highly satisfied part-time teacher would be more likely to be employed full time in an additional capacity than would the dissatisfied one. A recent report by the California Community and Junior College Association estimated that 9.3% of the part-timers had no other employment and 22.6% were working part time elsewhere. I felt also that the highly satisfied part-time faculty person would more likely be working on an advanced degree. Brawer's findings (1975) on part-time humanities teachers indicate that they are less experienced and more likely to prefer further preparation, substantiating Hassencahl's study (1974) of part-time communications instructors, which found that a significant number were doing graduate work. In addition, I anticipated that a greater percentage of female part-time faculty members would fall into the dissatisfied group because "part-time women tend to be less satisfied with salaries and would more likely be dependent upon a part-time job, [while] men tend to be teaching part-time

for extra money and are less concerned with salary levels" (Hassencahl, 1974, p. 6). Finally, I predicted that dissatisfied part-timers would be more likely to favor collective bargaining than highly satisfied part-timers, since they have so much to gain by being included in collective bargaining agreements. There does seem to be some evidence to support the thesis that "part-time faculty themselves are not conscious of their situation" (Hassencahl, 1974, p. 6), that they are less knowledgeable about the educational environment and less positively committed to junior college education. Yet contradicting these claims are more recent developments, such as the $3.5 million lawsuit charging inequitable treatment of part-time faculty at Rio Hondo College.

For the purposes of this study, the replies of 364 part-time humanities instructors from the Faculty Study were examined. The Satisfaction Construct, which included a rating from "excellent" to "poor" of such elements as salary, relations with colleagues, students, and administrators, job security, and working environment in general, divided the part-time instructors into three categories of satisfaction--high, medium, and low. Cross-tabulations of the responses of part-timers in each of these three categories were made with the responses to specific questions on sex, employment status, current work toward a degree, and attitudes on collective bargaining. In addition, I tried to determine which elements on the satisfaction index were most crucial to dissatisfied part-time faculty members. Of the 364 part-timers, only 16% (59) were highly satisfied, while 23% (85) were dissatisfied. The remaining 61% (220) fell into the medium-satisfaction category.

The results of the study show, as predicted, that highly satisfied part-time teachers are more likely to be employed full time outside the college. Of the total population, 65.4% were employed full time--forty hours or more per week--in an additional capacity. Of the highly satisfied respondents, 71.2% fall into this category, while 67.1% of those dissatisfied belong in this group. More interesting, 35.2% of the total population work 31 or more hours off campus, and of the highly satisfied part-timers, 45.8% fall into this category as compared to only 24.7% of

the dissatisfied part-timers.

The data, then, indicate that the most highly satisfied part-timers do work in an additional capacity, but that proportionately more tend to work between 31 and 39 hours a week. We might assume therefore, that their jobs are either less demanding or more flexible than most full-time jobs, thus permitting them to accommodate part-time teaching. A person working forty hours or more a week in a demanding job would no doubt find the additional part-time teaching load somewhat of a strain. By contrast, 32.4% of the population work in another job less than 31 hours a week, or part-time, but only 27.1% of the highly satisfied part-timers fall into this category while 32.9% of the dissatisfied part-timers are in this group. Moreover, men are more likely than women to be employed in an additional capacity, either full time or part time.

The expectation that highly satisfied part-time instructors would more likely be working on an advanced degree does not prove to be correct. The findings (Table 1) show that a dissatisfied part-timer is as likely to be working on an advanced degree as a highly satisfied one.

TABLE 1

JOB SATISFACTION AND DEGREE WORK OF PART-TIME TEACHERS

Current Degree Work	Total (N=120)	High (N=20)	Medium (N=70)	Low Satisfaction (N=30)
Master's or Doctorate		33.9%	31.8%	35.3%

What is interesting to note here, in terms of sheer numbers, is the fact that out of the 120 people working on an advanced degree, the majority, 70, fall into the medium-satisfaction category. This tends to indicate that part-time teaching may be viewed primarily as a means of gaining teaching experience for the degree candidate, as opposed to being a highly satisfying experience on a long-term basis. Part-time teaching is very functional for the overwhelming number of degree students, and therefore they fall into the medium satisfaction category.

Again, contrary to what had been predicted, female part-time faculty members do not tend to be more dissatisfied (Table 2):

TABLE 2

SEX AND JOB SATISFACTION OF PART-TIME INSTRUCTORS

Sex	Percent of Total	High	Medium	Low
Male	57.7%	55.9%	58.6%	56.5%
Female	42.3%	44.1%	41.4%	43.5%

The dissatisfied part-time faculty member is as likely to be male as female. One explanation for this could be the tremendously tight job market, both in teaching and in other areas. It is now perhaps almost as difficult for a man to find a full-time job as it is for a woman.

As expected, the dissatisfied part-time faculty members are more likely to favor collective bargaining. Of the total population, 36.3% strongly agree with collective bargaining. Of the dissatisfied part-timers, 45.9% strongly agree while only 33.9% of the highly satisfied part-timers agree. These data indicate that many dissatisfied part-timers view collective bargaining contracts as benefiting them as well as the full-time faculty. Only 4.9% of the total population strongly disagree with collective bargaining, a finding which suggests that part-timers are more than willing to be included in collective bargaining agreements.

In this study, I also tried to isolate those factors that most strongly contribute to dissatisfaction among part-timers. Of the total who were not satisfied, slightly under half rated their salary as poor, and just over half rated job security as poor. Opportunities to be creative were rated as fair by 42.4% of the part-timers and as poor by 16.5% of them. These variables tend to be the most significant factors affecting dissatisfaction among part-time community college humanities faculty members.

We may conclude, then, that the dissatisfied part-time faculty member is as likely to be male as female, may or may not be working on an advanced degree, is less likely to be employed full-time in an additional job, and is strongly supportive of collective bargaining. In addition, the dissatisfied part-timer feels that his opportunities to be creative

are limited; his salary is inadequate; and for him, job secruity does not exist.

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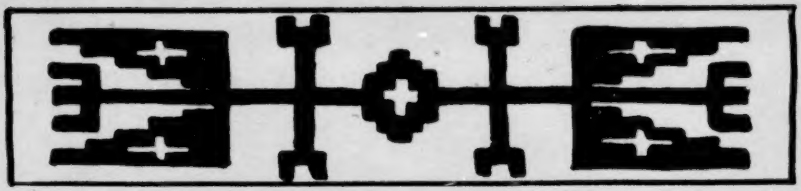

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION: ADVOCATES AND ADVERSARIES

Sue H. Schlesinger

What are the attitudes toward affirmative action in the community college? The faculty is divided into two distinct groups--the advocates and the adversaries. Those who support affirmative action policies see the unequal distribution of women and minority persons as resulting from systematic exclusion by postsecondary institutions. Yet other instructors feel that this unequal distribution actually reflects differing levels of talent and aspirations on the part of women and minorities. They see affirmative action as a threat to high standards of excellence, rigor, and scholarship because they misinterpret it to mean that preference must be given to minorities or women even if white males are better qualified.

The numerous laws on affirmative action are themselves ineffectual without support from the faculty. Often the purpose of affirmative action may be subverted by members of selection committees. Lester, though clearly an adversary, admits their significant role: "faculty are the employers of faculty...and any charges of discrimination in faculty employment are, for the most part, really made against faculty members in the performance of their faculty responsibilities" (1974, p. 21). Obviously, we must look to the faculty if we are to determine the power and enforceability of these legislatively stipulated rules.

Who are the supporters and opponents? In a recent faculty survey, Ladd and Lipset approached the controversy in terms of egalitarian and

meritocratic values. What is important, according to their findings, is the socio-political ideology of the faculty member: "liberals are vastly more inclined to egalitarianism than faculty conservatives" (1976a, p. 13). Their report also shows that although 95% of their total sample agree that the underrepresentation of blacks is a serious problem and 80% say the same for women, only one-fourth to one-third feel that preferential treatment should be given to minorities and women to correct this imbalance. These findings substantiate those of Bayer (1973), who earlier reported that between one-fourth and one-third of those surveyed felt that there should be preferential hiring for women and minority faculty. Compared to the 1968-69 Carnegie Commission survey, however, the Ladd and Lipset study shows that "support for 'nonmeritocratic' measures to increase representation of minority groups seems to have risen by at least 10 percentage points" (1976b, p. 12). The study also indicates that faculty attitudes toward egalitarianism are associated with professional values: those teachers who are meritocratic "manifest a high level of scholarly achievement...are more research oriented...and publish more" (1976a, p. 13).

The Ladd and Lipset study represents one of the few attempts to characterize instructors who support or oppose affirmative action. Yet even this study deals with only a few characteristics of faculty members in relation to this question of support or opposition. And although the study includes participants from all levels of higher education, very little is known specifically about two-year college instructors. In fact, none of the literature on affirmative action, despite oblique mentions of community college teachers, has anything substantial on this particular group. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to portray community college faculty members who advocate and who oppose affirmative action policies.

At the outset, I developed several hypotheses:

(1) Two-year college faculty members who support affirmative action policies would tend to be: less secure in their jobs and less satisfied with them than those in opposition. This proposition was based on the

underlying notion that the most likely supporters of affirmative action are those who could possibly gain from it--teachers who have not yet achieved security or satisfaction within their positions and who thus might be looking for other positions to which they might more readily gain access through affirmative action policies. Moreover, the opponents of affirmative action are more likely to have achieved security and satisfaction in their faculty positions through the meritocratic principles with which collegiate institutions function. They are therefore likely to see affirmative action policies as violating the academic and intellectual meritocracy of the system in which they are solidly entrenched.

(2) Supporters would tend to be part-time faculty who are employed elsewhere fewer than 30 hours a week. I assumed here that part-timers (those who do not have a full-time job in addition to their part-time teaching) would see affirmative action as a means to more easily achieve full-time status in an institution. More important, part-time faculty in two-year colleges, who claim that they are overworked and underpaid, are quite likely to advocate policies that promote fair treatment and are based on notions of social change. It would also seem that the opponents of affirmative action would tend to be full-time faculty members and part-timers working more than 30 hours. This group is less likely to see affirmative action policies as helpful, for they already have full-time jobs either in teaching or elsewhere.

(3) Supporters would tend to be younger (under 35) than opponents because older faculty members, in general, tend to abide by more traditional ideas and are less open to changing their views. Gittell points out that the adversaries of affirmative action are "the same people who would protect the university or other institutions of higher education, including two-year colleges, from other outside pressure for change, including open admissions, increased student participation in policy making and a concern for community" (1975, p. 40). On the whole, younger people tend to be more critical of the status quo within societal institutions and thus are more willing to support policies, such as those of affirmative action, that facilitate social change.

(4) Supporters would tend to be women rather than men; and this sex difference would be greatest between younger women (21-35) and younger men (21-35). That women would be more likely to support affirmative action than men is easily understood--they have a vested interest in so doing. And past studies have clearly substantiated this hypothesis (Bayer, 1973). Furthermore, younger women would tend to be stronger supporters than younger men because they are being given more opportunities to be hired in the affirmative action plans that call for correcting the imbalance of women faculty members. Younger men see affirmative action policies as one more obstacle to obtaining a job in an already tight market.

(5) Supporters would tend to be less research oriented than opponents. Ladd and Lipset (1976a) found that meritocratic faculty--those most likely to oppose affirmative action--are more research oriented than are egalitarian faculty, or those who most likely would support affirmative action.

In testing out these assumptions, I classified the 1998 instructors in the Faculty Study as supporters of affirmative action if they "strongly disagree" or "somewhat disagree" that "claims of discriminatory practices against women and minority students in higher education have been greatly exaggerated" and "strongly agree" or "somewhat agree" that "there should be preferential hiring for women and/or minority faculty at this institution." Those classified as opponents of affirmative action strongly/somewhat agree and strongly/somewhat disagree, respectively, to the two statements above. The data were obtained through cross-tabulations between advocates and adversaries and the variables outlined in the foregoing hypotheses.

The results of the study confirm the prediction that supporters are less secure in their jobs and less satisfied with them. When given a choice of job security ratings from "poor" to "excellent," 33.9% of the total sample chose "excellent." Of those who support affirmative action, only 27.1% rate their job security as "excellent," while a significantly higher percentage, 42.4%, of the opponents rate their job security as such. Moreover, although only 13.4% of affirmative action

supporters fall into the "high" satisfaction index rank (16.9% of the total were "high" in satisfaction), 19.7% of the adversaries are highly satisfied.

The findings also show, as expected, that the supporters include more part-time teachers than the opponents do. Compared to the 18.9% of the total sample who are part-timers, 22.4% of the supporters are part-timers while only 15.0% of the opponents work part-time. The data also indicate that this spread between the two groups is greatly accentuated when one looks at females who teach part-time and who work elsewhere up to 30 hours per week. Of the females who support affirmative action, 5.7% fall into this category (2.6%, total) compared to a mere .8% of the female opponents, while 3.7% of the men favoring affirmative action (3.1%, total) are in this group compared to 2.3% of the male opponents. Thus, although advocates of affirmative action are highly represented by part-time faculty who work elsewhere up to 30 hours, their representation is heavily weighted by the part-time females in this category. Furthermore, although it was predicted that opponents would tend to be part-timers working elsewhere more than 30 hours, this is true only for males. Of the total sample, 5.4% males are part-timers working elsewhere more than 30 hours; of those who favor affirmative action, only 3.0% are males of this type, while a much higher percentage, 6.1%, of those against affirmative action fall into this category.

The results of the study also validate the proposition that younger faculty members support affirmative action more than do older ones. However, the results show that those who support affirmative action are under 40 years of age rather than under 35, as initially thought. Table 1 reveals that the greatest spread between these two groups is the 31-35 age range. Of those favoring affirmative action, 26.8% fall within this range, while of those opposing affirmative action, only 15.8% are members of this age group.

TABLE 1

AGES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUPPORTERS AND OPPONENTS

Age	Total (N=1998)	Supporters (N=299)	Opponents (N=620)
under 25	1.1	1.3	.6
26-30	10.2	13.4	6.5
31-35	19.1	26.8	15.8
36-40	16.5	17.7	14.4
41-45	14.2	14.4	16.3
46-50	14.0	11.4	14.5
51-55	10.8	8.4	13.4
56-60	8.1	3.3	10.6
61 or older	6.1	3.3	7.9

The findings also clearly confirm that there are proportionately more women than men who support affirmative action policies (see Table 2). This finding substantiates that of Ladd and Lipset (1976a), which stated that 26% of the women surveyed favored preferential hiring for women and the same percentage favored it for blacks, while only 19% of the men surveyed favored it for women and 21%, for blacks.

TABLE 2

SEX OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUPPORTERS AND OPPONENTS

	Total (N=1998)	Supporters (N=299)	Opponents (N=620)
Male	69.6	59.2	83.4
Female	30.4	40.8	16.6

The hypothesis that supporters of affirmative action would more likely be younger women than younger men is not borne out by the data. That is, both younger women and younger men (under 35) strongly support affirmative action. The younger women are, however, somewhat more heavily represented as supporters than are the men. These findings suggest that younger faculty members so heavily support affirmative action that sex differences in their attitudes are obscured when looking at

this younger group. Another finding contrary to expectations is that supporters of affirmative action are more research oriented than opponents.

By investigating the support for and opposition to affirmative action policies among two-year college teachers, this study helps to characterize the advocates and adversaries. To sum up: advocates tend to be under 40 years of age, female, part-timers working elsewhere less than 30 hours per week, less secure in and less satisfied with their jobs. The adversaries, in contrast, tend to be over 40 years of age, male, full-timers or part-timers working more than 30 hours per week elsewhere, more secure in their jobs, and more highly satisfied with them.

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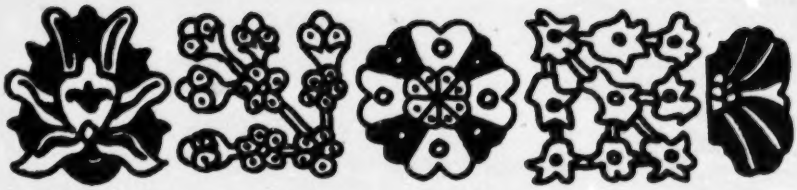

AESTHETES AND SOCIAL SCIENTISTS

Eleanor Hammer

Are community college music and art instructors a distinctly different group from those in the social sciences? In endeavoring to answer this question, we formed two groups from the total 1998 respondents to the Faculty Study. The aesthetic group, numbering 194, was composed of music and art department members. I will refer to them as the "aesthetes," using the word as it is formally defined--"one who is highly sensitive to art and beauty." In contrast to the aesthetes are those who will be called the "social scientists"--those who teach anthropology, law/government, and social studies/cultural geography/ethnic studies. This group contains 227 faculty members.

In trying to understand why the aesthetes might be expected to differ from the social scientists, I began the study with the following assumptions:

(1) The aesthetes majored in fields which have unusually specific requirements. Music majors, for example, must begin music study long before they start college, and art majors are likely to have displayed an artistic bent in their early youth. Certainly neither field is said to be a sure road to economic security; hence, choosing to major in one of these fields implies that a student has made an emotional decision as much as a rational one. In contrast, the social scientist is more likely to have chosen his college major at a later point in his life, and his choice of a field of study may have been less emotional.

(2) The aesthetes have a special problem--maintaining their hard-won skills in their fields. For instance, the music teacher needs to continue practicing and the art teacher needs to continue painting. Because their skills take a good deal of time to maintain, they may not be as interested in research or graduate work as the social scientists. This factor may account for what Mayhew termed the "preciousness about the fields of the arts" (1968, p. 115), which he felt was responsible for the "separateness" he found in dealing with the art and music departments on the liberal arts campus. Even interaction with colleagues might erode the little time that art and music instructors have to practice their own art.

(3) There may be personality differences between the aesthetes and the social scientists. Folk wisdom has claimed that artists and musicians are decidedly an odd lot. Their credit ratings are said to be lower. At best, they may be made to feel "different" from the rest of the society, more "feminine," more "sensitive." In contrast, perhaps the social scientists are more like everybody else. In a classic study, Bereiter and Freedman stated that "familiar academic stereotypes assign quite different personalities to such figures as the art student, the engineering student, the business student, and the history student" (1962, p. 571).

In order to see how the aesthetes differ from the social scientists, I used data from the Faculty Study to compare their professional and demographic characteristics: their major in college, the number of hours they taught per week, their full-time or part-time status, their male/female ratio, and their attitudes toward further preparation. I also examined their attitudes toward the aesthetic dimension and their personality factors.

The results show that most of the art teachers were art majors (89%) and almost all of the music teachers had been music majors (97%). In contrast, the best match between teaching field and college major revealed by the social scientists is found in the law/government people:

62% of them were political science majors. In the anthropology group, 60% majored in that field in college. In general, then, the social scientists have more varied teaching responsibilities and represent a greater variety of college majors.

In terms of the number of hours taught weekly, a comparative analysis shows that the aesthetes teach many more hours than do the social scientists (see Table 1).

TABLE 1

TEACHING LOADS OF AESTHETES AND SOCIAL SCIENTISTS

Number of Class Hours Taught Weekly	Total	Art	Music	Soc. Sciences
More than 18	8.2%	16.3%	25.6%	7.5%
16-18	13.2	15.4	21.1	12.8
13-15	32.1	19.2	20.0	30.0

This finding supports that of Belford, who showed that "music instructors carried heavier teaching loads...than their colleagues in other curriculum areas" (1970, p. 409).

Regarding employment status, the aesthetes and the social scientists again differed. When asked, "Are you considered to be a full-time faculty member?" 61% of the art teachers (75.6% total) answered "yes," as compared to a significantly higher percentage of the social scientists--74%. However, 80% of the music instructors indicated they were full-timers. These figures seem at variance with those from some other studies, which show a large influx of part-time instructors in the music field, especially in instrumental and vocal music (Belford, 1970; Jansen, 1971). The fact that the present study was directed to music appreciation teachers might account for the quite high percentage of full-time faculty members in that field.

The results also show that there are more female instructors in the combined social sciences than in music or art. However, there are proportionately more females in art (39.4%) than in any one of the social sciences or than in the total population of humanities instructors (Table 2).

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE AESTHETES AND SOCIAL SCIENTISTS

	Total	Art	Music	Anthro.	Law	Soc. Scientists*
Females	33.3	39.4	18.9	26.2	12.2	32.6

* Includes social studies, cultural geography, and ethnic studies.

Why there should be a greater percentage of female instructors in art than in the total group and a smaller percentage in music is an interesting question. The ACE survey (Bayer, 1973) shows what percentages of male and female faculty members in all types of colleges are in the fine arts field. For two-year colleges, the males (8.2%) exceed the females (5.9%), but in four-year colleges, females exceed males and the same is true for universities--11.6% vs. 9.8%; 8.4% vs. 7.0%, respectively.

The aesthetes are less interested in the doctoral degree (Ph.D., Ed.D., D.A.) than the social scientists. When asked: "Toward what kind of degree are you currently working?" the answer "doctoral degree" was given as follows:

Total	Aesthetes	Soc. Scientists
23.6%	14.4%	24.2%

When asked if they would like to work on such a degree, the positive answers were:

Total	Aesthetes	Soc. Scientists
40.5%	28.6%	44.1%

One might hypothesize that the aesthetes simply have less time available, or that an advanced degree represents an emphasis on knowledge and the "cognitive domain," which is even at best a departure from the basic interests of the aesthetes.

If the aesthetes are truly identified by their fields, their attitudes toward some aesthetic questions should be revealed in several items of the survey. For example, when asked to give a free response

to the question: "If you had a free summer, what would you do with it?" 43.3% of the art instructors said they would "create/perform/paint," 26.7% of those in music said they would also do this, and only 1.8% of the social scientists answered this way.

In evaluating the aesthetic domain as a part of education, the aesthetes are again consistent. Although everybody claims that "aesthetic awareness" is an important quality that students should gain from their two-year college experience, the percentages of those who think it "very important" are:

Total	Art	Music	Soc. Scientists
76.8%	90.4%	87.8%	64.3%

And not unsurprisingly, the aesthetes are much more inclined to think there are too few "concerts and recitals" at their schools. When asked to respond freely to: "How do you experience the humanities other than through your teaching?" the answers which fell in a category of "visit art museums/shows/exhibits/concerts/theater/films" were given by the following:

Total	Art	Music	Soc. Scientists
58.6%	59.6%	65.6%	43.6%

Are there personality differences between the two groups, or at least personal qualities and attitudes that may be deduced, no doubt imperfectly, from the Faculty Study? Far from being an unhappy, rejected lot, as is sometimes the stereotype of the "artist," the aesthetes are the best adjusted, the happiest of the faculty groups. In rating their relationships with a variety of groups, the aesthetes give the rating "excellent" in greater numbers than the others:

Excellent Relationships	Total	Aesthetes	Soc. Scientists
with colleagues	41.2%	45.9%	40.1%
with students	58.2	64.4	58.1
with administrators	30.2	34.5	30.8
with family and friends	64.4	68.0	67.0

And the aesthetes continue to give the "excellent" rating in proportionately greater percentages than the social scientists or the total group on other measures of attitude. One item, their students' "enthusiasm for learning," is striking. The figures are:

Students' Enthusiasm	Total	Aesthetes	Soc. Scientists
excellent	11.8%	22.2%	9.7%
good	47.5	52.6	48.5
fair	33.9	20.1	37.0
poor	5.5	3.6	4.0
no opinion	1.3	1.5	.9

In affirming the statement: "I believe that if I work hard, things will work out for me," the aesthetes display a certain optimism:

	Total	Aesthetes	Soc. Scientists
strongly agree	25.9%	36.6%	22.9%
somewhat agree	47.0	42.8	52.4
somewhat disagree	10.6	5.2	11.5
strongly disagree	3.5	2.1	4.4
no opinion	13.1	13.4	8.8

Their answers to: "Compared with most people of my age in my field who have had comparable training, I have been more successful," reveal a tinge of complacency. Strong agreement was registered by 20.1% of the aesthetes, 15% of the social scientists, and by 13.8% of the total group.

To summarize, the aesthetes major in demanding and narrow fields and tend to stay in those fields. They may be accused of being narrow-minded and too specialized, but they do not seem concerned about it. Having received this intense preparation, they are less interested in working on a doctoral degree. They are overly busy, teaching more hours and working more outside of school. They seem to be true aesthetes at heart, wanting to spend their free time in their fields and considering the aesthetic realm very important for their students. If their personalities and attitudes differ from those of other faculty members, the differences do not seem to hamper them; in fact, the reverse may be true.

What practical use can be made of such conclusions? The following

suggestions may be made. First, hiring practices may need to be somewhat different for the aesthetes. It would be logical to expect the search committee members, including the administrators, to hear music candidates perform and to see portfolios of art applicants. Since both these arts are nonverbal ones, and yet college work is so dominated by the word, the interviewers may need to be especially careful to check out the verbal skills of the applicants, regardless of their special abilities.

Second, the supervision of new faculty members may well be colored by the needs of their fields. What an administrator might regard as pure and simple "moonlighting" might be thought of as professional musical or artistic obligations by the new teachers.

Third, even the experienced faculty aesthetes need some morale boosting now and then; administrators might do well to attend the recitals of the music department and view the exhibits of the art department.

Fourth, although administrators tend to give the aesthetes more hours to teach, no doubt using the rationale that their classes are like chemistry lab sessions, this situation may change. A two-hour choir rehearsal or a two-hour pottery session is a more intense activity than, say, two hours of typing class, and the aesthete who manages his overload nicely when he is an energetic 35 may not be so happy about it at age 50.

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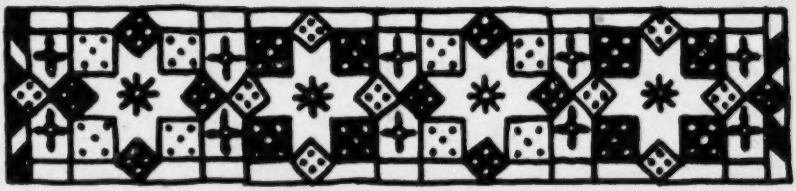

DOMINANT FACULTY VALUES

Josephine M. Fay

Do the values of community college instructors differ from those of teachers in primary and secondary schools or from those of professors in colleges and universities? That various segments of the population have different values has been found by several studies (Bhattacharya, 1973; Saleh and Others, 1975; Rokeach, 1973). One wonders, therefore, whether teachers form a discrete segment or group with congruent values or whether they differ according to the grade levels or the subjects they teach. This study attempts to derive a values profile of instructors on all levels of education from their responses to the Rokeach instrument for measuring values, which has been used in numerous faculty surveys.

The focus is on what Rokeach calls a value system, described in terms of the relative rankings of terminal values. Terminal values are true values, ends in themselves, in contrast to instrumental values, which are means for the sake of other ends. Rokeach's approach to values is phenomenological; that is, he sees values as being determined subjectively by persons rather than inherent in objects. Consistent with this approach is his definition of a value as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence" (1973, p. 5).

The terminal values are simply disparate beliefs about desirable

states of being. They are organized by each individual into a system of priorities, an arrangement in which values have greater or lesser importance in the sense that if a choice were necessary, value "A" would be selected and value "B" abandoned. The value survey rests on the assumption that names of values, amplified by simple descriptions or qualifying phrases, will suffice to elicit a general pattern, an individual value system.

Rokeach's complete value survey consists of a list of 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values, alphabetically arranged, with a brief description in parentheses accompanying each one. The value a comfortable life, for instance, is described as a prosperous life in parentheses. The instructions to the respondent are to "arrange the values in order of importance to YOU, as guiding principles in YOUR life" (capitalization is Rokeach's). Nothing bad or wrong or undesirable appears in the list, a factor that would make things easy for the respondent. Since all the values are positive, Rokeach reasons, the rankings must be subjective; since the respondent has to rely on his own internalized value system as a principle of organization, the value scale takes on some characteristics of a projective test (such as the Rorschach or the Thematic Apperception Test). At the same time, the structured nature of the items yields rankings that can be described readily in quantitative terms. (A list of the terminal values is provided as Appendix A at the end of this discussion.)

Given the importance of occupation in adult life, we should expect that the faculty member's commitment to a particular discipline would be related to his perceptions of value. There are, to be sure, common characteristics of professors: objectivity, breadth of view, tolerance for the opinions of others, the ability to engage the attention of students, and so forth. But besides these academic virtues, more or less shared, are there value differences that correspond to disciplinary affiliations? In a survey of instructors at three community colleges in Southern California, Brawer (1971) found that the highest ranked value of the teaching staff was self-respect, with a sense of

accomplishment second, and freedom third. For the humanities faculty, family security ranked first, a sense of accomplishment was second, and self-respect third. Surprisingly, a world of beauty appears in the lower half of the value pattern of all faculty members, receiving the highest ranking (ninth) by social scientists rather than by persons associated with the traditional humanities.

In the 1975 Faculty Study, Cohen and Brawer found self-respect to be the highest ranking value of the humanities faculty, followed by wisdom, then inner harmony, and family security. For the nonhumanities faculty, family security ranked first, self-respect second, inner harmony third, and a sense of accomplishment fourth. Both types of faculty members ranked freedom fifth, and the humanities faculty ranked a sense of accomplishment sixth. A comparison of the humanities and nonhumanities faculties in this survey does not produce an unambiguous distinction between the two groups in regard to the highest ranking values. Some differences do occur, but the two sets are more similar than not.

When the Rokeach Value Survey was administered to members of the faculty at two large public universities in Michigan (Rokeach, 1973), similar results were obtained. Rokeach surveyed five academic fields: biological sciences, physical sciences, social sciences, the arts, and business. The greatest unanimity appears in the rankings of the various scientists, for whom a sense of accomplishment is first, followed by self-respect for the physical scientists, and equality for the social scientists. The art faculty, on the other hand, ranked wisdom first, a sense of accomplishment second, and inner harmony third, whereas family security is first for the faculty in the area of business, freedom is second, and a sense of accomplishment is third. A world of beauty is the fifth value of the art faculty, distinguishing this group from the others. For the four-year college faculty, then, a sense of accomplishment is among the top three values of all the teachers surveyed, and self-respect is among the top four of all groups. Hence, we find remarkable agreement in dominant value patterns across institutional lines.

What about teachers in grade and high schools? One study of teachers in an Ohio metropolitan area (Sikula and Others, 1972) reports equality as the highest value of elementary school teachers as a whole; however, a breakdown into inner-city and suburban teachers shows that the inner-city elementary school teachers rank this value significantly higher than suburban teachers (a median of 2.1 for the inner-city teachers versus 11.2 for the suburban teachers). Yet, the dominant values of secondary school teachers, who give the highest priorities to wisdom, self-respect, family security, and a sense of accomplishment, in that order, are hardly distinguishable from those of professors.

Another study of grade school teachers shows priority rankings congruent with those of professors, with family security, inner harmony, and self-respect receiving the highest rankings. The similarities may reflect the fact that these teachers work in schools in a middle-class university community in Arizona. Indeed, the single group of educators that is distinguished from the others on the basis of value rankings--the elementary school teachers from a metropolitan area--is different primarily because the inner-city teachers who were part of the sample stressed equality.

Thus, people in the teaching profession manifest a consistent pattern of dominant values, at least as revealed through the Rokeach Terminal Value Survey. In basing this generalization on a comparison of research studies, we must bear in mind differences in sample size, in reporting means and medians, and in the years in which the survey was administered. But with these cautions in interpretation, we may note that several values characterize faculty and teachers. Self-respect is among the topmost values of all groups. A sense of accomplishment is ranked very high by all groups except grade school teachers. Family security is also a top value, with a few exceptions. Although the humanities faculty in the Cohen and Brawer survey of 1969 (Park, 1971) selects family security as the highest value, the total staff evaluation places family security seventh; the four-year college faculty members include this value among their top priorities,

except for the art faculty.

The values highly prized by the humanities faculty--a sense of accomplishment, self-respect, inner harmony, wisdom, and family security--are widely shared by two- and four-year college faculty. All agree on at least three of these highest ranking values. High school teachers also conform to the configuration of dominant faculty values, and so does the sample of grade school teachers from a middle-class university community. Disciplinary bias is shown in the high ranking of a world of beauty by the art faculties of senior institutions (but not by the humanities or art instructors in two-year colleges). The data, however, do not reveal a clear distinction between the humanities and the nonhumanities faculty.

The prevalence of the personal over the social in their value hierarchies appears in the higher evaluations of freedom over equality. In the studies thus far mentioned, only social scientists in senior institutions of higher education and grade school teachers in an inner-city area reversed this ranking. In the 1975 community college Faculty Study, for example, equality ranks eleventh for the humanities faculty and tenth for the nonhumanities faculty, while freedom is fifth for both groups. Rokeach has noted the discrepancy in the rankings of freedom and equality in his own research; people prefer their own value--personal freedom--to a value that pertains to others. Based on the evidence from past reports, an overwhelmingly clear trend emerges: faculty members in higher education prefer personal to social values and that preference is generally characteristic of the teaching profession.

The personal values prized by faculty members pertain to the interior life, to the life of the mind or spirit, if you will, with the single exception of family security, a value closely identified with material welfare. The highest values reported by the largest sample--the 1500 faculty members in the 1975 Faculty Study who teach humanities in two-year colleges--are self-respect, wisdom, and inner harmony. If we consider these values in the context of the traditional

association of the humanities with human values, we find that the humanistic faculty responds to values identified with the personality as an autonomous center about which the various aspects of life are organized. The high value accorded freedom fits this perspective, for the free development of human capabilities and the responsibility of man to form his own world and shape his own life are part of the humanistic tradition. This interpretation also accounts for the relatively low ranking of equality, an ideal that became prominent in social and political thought in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, but is less deeply rooted in the humanistic tradition than freedom.

The congruency of values for the teaching profession corroborates the position of Brawer (1971), namely, that the role of the teacher is connected with a value configuration. In a monograph comparing faculty and student values, she reports a general consistency in the values of faculty members, a pattern that contrasts with those of students. She attributes this to their role orientation (as teacher or as student), which affects the value system more than any other variable. Probably the teaching role is attended by personal values that are either brought to the profession or acquired in the course of its practice. The role itself, rather than disciplinary affiliation or teaching level, appears to be associated with a value system in which the highest priorities are accorded to values centering on an inner life and a feeling of self-esteem.

APPENDIX A

ROKEACH'S TERMINAL VALUE SCALE

A comfortable life (a prosperous life)
Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)
An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)
Family security (taking care of loved ones)
Freedom (independence, free choice)
Happiness (contentedness)
Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)

APPENDIX (Cont.)

Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)
National security (protection from attack)
Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)
Salvation (saved, eternal life)
Self-respect (self-esteem)
A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)
Social recognition (respect, admiration)
True friendship (close companionship)
Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)
A world at peace (free of war and conflict)
A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)

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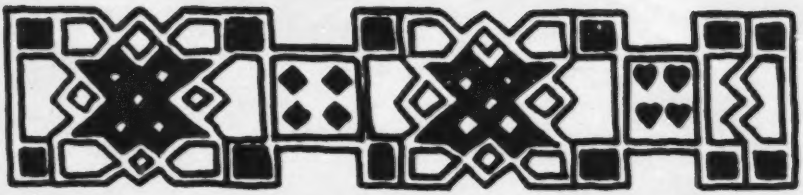

ACTUALIZATION OR SALARY: WHICH IS PREFERRED?

Len O'Hara

Previous reports have shown that college teaching is a highly satisfying career, but what makes it so? The present study attempts to identify some factors that contribute to community college faculty satisfaction by examining them in light of Abraham Maslow's needs hierarchy.

Maslow (1943, 1962) postulates not only that human needs are hierarchically ordered but that they can be divided into two sections--deficiency needs and being needs. He contends that deficiency needs such as safety, food, and affection are of a lower, more primitive order and must be fulfilled before one can begin to recognize the higher order being needs of autonomy, self-respect, creativity, and the like, which lead to self-actualization. Furthermore, once lower order needs have been met, they become of less concern to the individual than do being needs. If Maslow is correct, then two-year college teachers should be more interested in higher ranked needs such as creativity and autonomy than in lower ranked ones such as salary and fringe benefits. Moreover, their preferences should be discernible in their responses to questions about job satisfaction.

Before discussing these questions, we should first understand what is meant by self-actualization. Maslow's works (1943, 1962), laden with descriptions and elucidations of descriptions, prohibit the reader from missing the point. The following passage represents

the way Maslow defines this concept:

> "I could describe self-actualization as a development of personality which frees the person from the deficiency problems of youth, and from the neurotic (or infantile, or fantasy, or unnecessary, or 'unreal') problems of life, so that he is able to face, endure and grapple with the 'real' problems of life (the intrinsically and ultimately human problems, the unavoidable, the 'existential' problems to which there is no perfect solution). That is, it is not an absence of problems but a moving from transitional or unreal problems to real problems. For shock purposes, I could even call the self-actualizing person a self-accepting and insightful neurotic, for this phrase may be defined in such a way as to be almost synonymous with understanding and accepting the intrinsic human situation" (1962, p. 109).

At the opposite end of the spectrum are those needs that Maslow calls D or deficiency needs:

> "The deficit-needs are shared by all members of the human species and to some extent by other species as well.... Just as all trees need sun, water, and foods from the environment, so do all people need safety, love and status from <u>their</u> environment. However, in both cases this is just where real development of individuality can begin, for once satiated with these elementary, species-wide necessities, each tree and each person proceeds to develop in his own style, uniquely, using these necessities for his own private purposes" (1962, p. 31).

What all this means for those in the teaching profession is that it may provide a yardstick for measuring people. I do not mean measurement in the strict empirical sense, but rather in the sense that it can separate the kinds of persons who are more likely to be "giving" from those who must be dependent.

Altshuler gives us a glimpse of what a self-actualizing person, operating as a community college faculty member, would probably be like. "My friends say...[that] I should face the fact that I am a mere worker who has been given just enough power over insignificant matters to be rendered docile. Still, I don't feel like an employee"

(1973, pp. 5-6). In describing the kind of day-to-day activities that teachers must face, she demonstrates quite clearly what Maslow would label freedom from a neurotic fear of the environment, a fear exhibited by those whose deficiency needs have not yet been met.

The current attention given to teachers' inclination to join unions could lead one to assume that financial (safety) needs are the one that concern faculty members most; however, some studies suggest this is not so. Eckert and Williams (1971), for instance, found that even though faculty members expressed some degree of dissatisfaction with salaries and other conditions of employment, more than 80% said they liked their jobs. A similar study of Florida faculty (Kurth and Mills, 1968) revealed that although salaries were less than satisfactory, 94% said they were happy with the nature of their work as teachers.

An attempt to link salary issues and union membership was done by using AAUP survey data (American Association of University Professors, 1969). In 1968-69, 427 colleges took part in a nationwide study of practices in higher education, and among the data gathered were detailed salary figures. Since that time, 53 of the schools have unionized. Significantly, those that have chosen unionization had the same average salary in 1969 as those that have not. Although this study does not eliminate the possibility that salary is what motivates college faculty, it does lend credence to the assertion that other things may be at work.

Not surprisingly, the Faculty Study reveals a very high satisfaction level among the group. But as always, there are those who would sooner work elsewhere. The present study, employing data collected in the Faculty Study, was undertaken to determine what kinds of factors would be most likely to make a faculty member want to leave or remain at his/her school. On the basis of Maslow's theory, I hypothesized that being needs are more important determiners of job satisfaction among community college humanities faculty than are deficiency needs.

To test this view, responses to two sets of survey questions were used. The questionnaire had asked faculty to rate their satisfaction with items ranging from salary and relations with colleagues, students, and administrators to such things as degree of autonomy and opportunities to be creative. Possible responses were "Excellent," "Good," "Fair," and "Poor." From the list of thirteen possible choices, one deficiency need and one being need were chosen: "salary" and "opportunities to be creative," respectively. The combined responses to these two questions were then used to create four types of faculty members. Group A was composed of those who felt they had both above-average (excellent or good) opportunities to be creative and above-average salaries; members of Group B had above-average opportunities to be creative but saw their salaries as being below-average (fair or poor); those in Group C had good salaries, but fewer than average opportunities to be creative; and Group D teachers were below average in both categories.

The four groups were then examined to determine how they had responded to the following question: "Five years from now (1980) you might be considering the following positions. How attractive do they appear to you at this time?" Of the nine possible future positions from which they had chosen, two were picked as most appropriate to my investigation: "I would be doing what I'm doing now" and "Any position but this college." Respondents had classified these positions as "Very Attractive," "Somewhat Attractive," and "Unattractive."

In conducting the study, I predicted:

(1) that the percentage of each group who said that "doing what I'm doing now" appears "Very Attractive" would be found to decrease in linear fashion from A through D (A,B,C,D);

(2) that the percentage of each group who said that "doing what I'm doing now" appears "Unattractive" would increase from A through D;

(3) that the percentage of each group who said that "Any position but this college" appears "Very Attractive" would increase

from A through D;

(4) that the percentage of each group who said that "Any position but this college" appears "Unattractive" would be shown to decrease from A through D; and

(5) that where opportunities to be creative were perceived as being above average, below-average salary would have little negative effect on satisfaction.

The results of the study clearly indicate that having opportunities to be creative is more important to more community college humanities faculty than is salary. The findings also show that most teachers--833 out of 1129--feel that their degree of creative opportunity is above average. Hence, not only do faculty members feel that this need is an important one, but they see the community college environment as being able to satisfy it.

In regard to job satisfaction in general, what do these findings tell us about the ways in which the desirable goal of high satisfaction is more likely to be attained? Look at responses (Table 1) to "doing what I'm doing now." What satisfaction changes would be likely to occur if salaries were increased so that all groups came to feel that their pay was above average, but the relative standing of their "creativity" need remained the same?

TABLE 1

ATTRACTIVENESS OF POSSIBLE FUTURE POSITIONS TO HUMANITIES FACULTY MEMBERS*

"I would be doing what I'm doing now"

	N=532 Group A ++	N=301 Group B +Creativity	N=130 Group C +Salary	N=155 Group D --
Very Attractive	55%	36%	29%	21%
Somewhat Attractive	32	49	49	46
Unattractive	7	9	18	26

TABLE 1 (Cont.)

"Any position but this college"

	Group A ++	Group B +Creativity	Group C +Salary	Group D --
Very Attractive	1%	4%	6%	11%
Somewhat Attractive	13	18	22	31
Unattractive	77	65	63	50

*N=1129 full-time humanities faculty members.

We see that group A would remain the same, as would group C. Group D would be "elevated" to the level of dissatisfaction that C now occupies, leaving only group B to make a shift of any real size. And even in this latter group, the only change likely to take place would be an approximately 19% migration from "Somewhat Attractive" to "Very Attractive" (significantly, the percentage of "Unattractive" responses in group B already approaches that of group A).

On the other hand, what would be expected to happen if "creativity" were increased, while salary ratings remained relatively constant? Now groups A and B remain at their present level of satisfaction, and the formerly dissatisfied individuals are added to the A and B ranks. Group C becomes like group A, and D resembles those who make up the B constituency. Thus, my main hypothesis that being needs determine job satisfaction more than do deficiency needs was supported.

Of course all this shifting of percentages is strictly theoretical and not representative of what is likely in a "live" situation. Closer to reality are trade-offs between such things as salary and autonomy and the like, especially in the present climate brought on by collective bargaining. Faculty members are unlikely to find themselves in a position to demand higher salaries and fringe benefits and at the same time retain, let alone improve, those aspects of the profession that make it highly satisfactory to them. Administrators can be expected to meet their legal responsibilities by requiring more structured modes of accountability, thereby severely limiting autonomy and calling for greater standardization of work performance.

Finally, what this study reveals is that most individuals in community college teaching are not in it for the money. And although an above-average salary is certainly preferable to a fair or poor one, higher order needs are what really matter. This description of the faculty member as someone who is more interested in "spiritual" than in "temporal" needs is far from being a new one; in fact, until the past few years it was the predominant image of teachers at all levels. I have attempted to show that this image is still valid and that high degrees of job satisfaction are reported by faculty members who work in environments that supply opportunities for creativity, regardless of the salary level.

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WE ARE SATISFIED WITH OUR JOBS: IT'S ONLY THE WORKING CONDITIONS THAT WE DON'T LIKE

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Do faculty say they are satisfied when they really are not? Answering this question requires an examination of the concept of job satisfaction to determine whether it is unidimensional--as so often supposed--or whether, in fact, it is multidimensional. Past studies on the job satisfaction of community college faculty members consistently yield conflicting results. On the one hand, we are informed that most teachers say they are generally satisfied with their jobs (Garrison, 1967; Kurth and Mills, 1968; Cohen and Brawer, 1976). On the other hand, a review of these same studies also reveals a relatively widespread feeling of faculty discontent with working conditions.

Perhaps the most paradoxical finding emerges from the Kurth and Mills (1968) study: faculty feelings of satisfaction are associated with the fruits of their labor (enjoyment of teaching, helping young people grow, personal satisfaction, and a sense of social usefulness) and the environment in which they work (freedom and independence of work, fine colleagues, association with college-age students). Yet the main sources of dissatisfaction for many of these same faculty members stem from the work itself (poorly motivated students, need to transmit elementary knowledge, excessive classroom hours, high student-teacher ratio, lack of time for class preparation, few student contact hours, and poor administrative procedures).

The tendency for two-year college faculty members to express a greater degree of satisfaction on items assessing more general attitudes concerning their working conditions than on questions eliciting reaction to specific aspects of their work activities is also detected by the Faculty Study. For example, a high percentage of the humanities teachers express satisfaction in their relations with the three primary groups of people with whom they typically associate: their students (97%); colleagues (91.7%); and administrators (78.8%). A majority also say they are satisfied with some of the conditions surrounding their employment: autonomy (79.6%); freedom to choose textbooks, programs, and media in their area (85.3%); opportunities to be creative (75.1%); and the working environment in general (73.3%). However, when asked if they would like to spend more, the same, or less time on each of twelve work activities cited, at least 40% of the instructors said they would like to change the amount of time they were devoting to three-fourths of these work-related functions.

That job satisfaction may be a multidimensional (as opposed to a unidimensional) concept and that its various dimensions may differ markedly in their relation to other variables, as well as to each other, is repeatedly evidenced. A close inspection of earlier studies reveals that whether a faculty member says he is satisfied largely depends on the approach used to measure the concept of satisfaction. If this is true, then different methods of conceptualizing and measuring this concept may produce highly discrepant reports and can, in fact, pose serious problems in interpretation.

In the Faculty Study, three measures assessed satisfaction: (1) faculty ratings of satisfaction with general facets of their work conditions; (2) discrepancy scores comparing the varying amounts of time faculty members devote to specific work-related activities; and (3) a set of items indicating how attractive they would find their present job in five years. These measures of satisfaction provide an excellent opportunity for this study to examine the extent to which a measure of faculty satisfaction with general working

conditions is related to a measure of faculty satisfaction with specific job activities. Furthermore, we can examine the relation each of these measures has with the degree of attraction the respondents feel for their present position.

On the basis of previous research, then, this study predicted that faculty members' scores on a measure of general work satisfaction would differ from their scores on a measure of specific work activity satisfaction. And individuals who score high, medium, or low on one measure of satisfaction would not be expected to score in the same relative position on the other measure. Moreover, past studies suggest that the more general measure of satisfaction may be a more valid means of assessing whether they find their job attractive. Hence, we would also expect that a greater percentage of teachers who score high on a general work satisfaction scale, as compared to those who score high on a work activity satisfaction scale, would indicate that their present position would be attractive to them in five years. Similarly, a greater percentage of those instructors who score low on a general work satisfaction scale, compared to those who score low on a work activity scale, would state that their present position would not be attractive to them in five years.

In order to see whether these expectations proved true, a general work condition satisfaction scale and a work activity scale were constructed. The items composing each of these indices appear in Table 1. For an item to be included in the general work satisfaction scale it had to: measure an important facet of a teacher's work condition and be peripheral to the specific work activities that define the role of a faculty member. Weights were assigned to the responses to each of the ten scale items (Excellent/Strongly Agree = 4; Good/Somewhat Agree = 3; Fair/Somewhat Disagree = 2; Poor/Strongly Disagree = 1) and summed to produce a scale score.

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF THE ITEMS ON THE GENERAL WORK CONDITION SATISFACTION SCALE AND ON THE WORK ACTIVITY SATISFACTION SCALE

GENERAL WORK CONDITION SCALE	WORK ACTIVITY SATISFACTION SCALE
Faculty Study Questionnaire Item: How would you rate each of the following: (excellent; good; fair; poor)	Faculty Study Questionnaire Item: If you had free choice in the matter, how much time would you give to the following: (more, the same amount, less)
Your salary Relations with colleagues Relations with students Relations with administrators Job security Opportunities to be creative Feelings about living up to your greatest potential Freedom to choose textbooks, programs, and media Your work environment in general	Classroom instruction Your own graduate education Research or professional writing Administrative activities Professional association work Community service Personal affairs Student interaction outside of class Conferring with colleagues Reading student papers or tests Planning instruction Presenting recitals or lectures outside of class
Faculty Study Questionnaire Item: Overall, this institution's administration is creative and effective (Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree)	

The work activity scale is based on a series of twelve specific items that measure the congruence between the time actually spent on each activity and the time the teacher would like to spend on each. Scale scores were derived in the following manner: if faculty members indicated that, if given a free choice, they would spend the same amount of time on a work activity as they were currently spending, a weight of 2 was assigned. If they expressed a desire to spend either more time or less than they were currently spending on an activity, a weight of 1 was assigned to the item. The weights were then summed to produce a scale score. Total scores on each of the scales were then divided into high, medium, and low satisfaction categories.

The percentages of faculty members who scored in the same satisfaction category (high, medium, or low) on both satisfaction scales were then compared. Additional comparisons were made between the scores on the two scales and three items asking the respondents to indicate how attractive they would find their present position as well as other positions in five years. This study treated the full-time humanities faculty (N=1129), the part-time humanities faculty (N=364), and the nonhumanities chairpersons (N=505) separately in order to obtain a clearer understanding of the results and to provide a measure of consistency.

The results of the study confirmed our expectations that satisfaction is a multidimensional concept and that its dimensions need not be related. Table 2 shows that only 9.5% of the respondents who score high on the general work satisfaction scale also score high on the work activity satisfaction scale and that just 7.3% of those who score low on the first scale also score low on the second. The subsamples of the part-time humanities faculty and the nonhumanities chairpersons provide additional evidence that the two measures of satisfaction are independent.

TABLE 2

COMPARISON OF FULL-TIME HUMANITIES FACULTY MEMBERS' SCORES ON TWO WORK SATISFACTION SCALES

General Work Satisfaction Scale	Work Activity Satisfaction Scale		
	High	Medium	Low
High	9.5%	13.8%	28.3%
Medium	62.8%	65.9%	64.4%
Low	27.7%	20.4%	7.3%

The independence of the scales points to the possibility that the two indices are not measuring the same thing. If this independence is a fact, then we would expect that the two satisfaction scales would yield different predictions of a dependent measure which, in the present study, is the value or attractiveness faculty members have for their present positions.

The results of the comparison between scores on the two scales and faculty reports of attraction for their positions, as well as other positions, show that a greater percentage of those who score high on the general scale than of those whose score high on the activity scale: (1) find doing what they are doing now to be "very attractive" in five years (70% vs. 31.8%); (2) find a position at another community or junior college to be "unattractive" to them in five years (47.5% vs. 32.4%); and (3) find a faculty position at a four-year college or university to be "unattractive" to them in five years (31.3% vs. 18.2%). Similarly, a greater percentage of full-time humanities faculty members who score low on the general scale than of those who score low on the other scale indicate that they: (1) find doing what they are doing now to be "unattractive" (28.6% vs. 5.8%); (2) would find a faculty position at another community or junior college to be "very attractive" to them in five years (16.4% vs. 9.8%); and (3) would find a faculty position at a four-year college or university to be "very attractive" (47.7% vs.

23.4%) to them in five years. Comparing the scores of the part-time humanities faculty and the nonhumanities chairpersons reveals similar discrepancies.

In sum, the data provide a high degree of support for the original hypothesis: the measure of general work condition satisfaction is a more valid predictor of the teacher's satisfaction with his or her present position than the measure of work activity satisfaction. That the two measures of satisfaction used in this investigation assess different kinds of satisfaction and that one is a more accurate predictor of a set of dependent variables than the other has several important implications for past and future research. Specifically, we see that:

(1) various approaches to measuring satisfaction may be assessing different dimensions of an individual's feelings of satisfaction; knowledge of an individual's score on one dimension may lead to interpretations that are very different from what one might infer from knowing his score on one or several other dimensions of satisfaction;

(2) the practice of combining data obtained from various measures of satisfaction and then drawing conclusions about the relationship of satisfaction to other variables may result in serious problems in validity and in interpretation; one or more of the various types of indices used in constructing a single measure called "satisfaction" may not have anything at all to do with the variable(s) that the measure of satisfaction is presumably designed to predict; and

(3) the potential of various measures to assess very different areas of an instructor's feelings of satisfaction suggests that decision makers and researchers alike need to pay close attention to the relationship between the type of satisfaction measure they use and the variable(s) they intend to assess.

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